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ABSTRACT

This resource booklet for reading consultants and supervisors was prepared as a class project during a summer seminar in teacher education. The booklet provides discussions of the essential principles of reading instruction and biographical sketches of reading specialists recognized as experts in the field. The topics discussed include adult basic reading, comprehension, content area reading, phonics, reading rate, reading readiness, standardized reading tests, vocabulary development, and word recognition. Also listed are periodicals and books that reading teachers can use as instructional and informational resources. (RL)

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Resource Review in Reading

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ADULT BASIC READING

There is a growing awareness that our system of educating our nation's children and not extending educational services to parents and even grandparents is faltering.

More and more, it is being recognized that children from literate homes become the children of the schools, and later the literate adults of our nation. Literacy is carried over from one generation to another (Thomas G. Sticht).

Some basic characteristics and styles of the adult learner are as follows:

1. The heart of adultness is independence and self-direction. There will be a resistance and resentment if the adult learner is made to feel dependent and captive.
2. The mature individual is a storehouse of experiences which are important to his central identity. The learning strategies that will be most productive are those that utilize his potential for input rather than didactic learning activities.
3. The adult's readiness for learning is inherent in his societal role as a worker, spouse, parent, organization member, and the like.
4. The adult's orientation to learning is here and now and problem-centered.

The learning strategies must be clear and enrich the adult's needs-oriented studies.

If educators are to meet the growing populous of the adult student, they must understand that an adult is not merely a large child. There must be a clear sense of direction in establishing and conducting productive literary programs.

One facet of adult education today takes learning into nursing homes. Delvalle says a patient library in a nursing home is a useful feature of the total program of social and personal rehabilitation. (Delvalle, 1975)

One method used in nursing homes is the investigator's selecting a short story with high interest and reading to patients. These sessions were received with interest, but the discussions often shifted to remembrance of earlier days.

There are some problems in working with nursing home patients, For example, many patients suffer from poor health, poor vision or impaired hearing and even withdrawal from their present conditions.

As the number of people over sixty-five increase, the use of reading activities to enhance the lives of the elderly must be increased.

Jails or correctional institutions are not to be overlooked as an important area of adult education, says Stanley Bochtler. So many students have been "skilled to

death" that inmates do not want a tutoring type program working on deficient skills, but rather they prefer an individualized approach.

All the inmates are volunteers in the reading program and can stop attending sessions whenever they desire.

The objective is to meet the inmate's current needs and interest through the use of varied materials, with the inmates selecting the materials and reading at their own paces.

Literacy, as defined, is the need to stress an individual's ability to cope with activities encountered in daily living (James, 1978).

Therefore, education and learning should extend throughout a lifetime, using different skills and all possible means to give people the opportunity to develop fully their personalities. Therefore, adult education is a subdivision of lifelong education and learning (Staiger, Ralph).

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READING COMPREHENSION

The ultimate outcome of an effective reading program is to develop readers who can comprehend the meaning of the written word. Reading comprehension is a process involving a number of thinking skills. Much research has been done in defining reading comprehension skills and suggesting techniques for improving and evaluating a student's abilities in this area.

Guzak has broken down the skill areas in reading comprehension into five categories; locating, remembering, organizing, predicting/extending, and evaluating.

Locating specifics is a skill important in everyday life. Locating telephone numbers, cities on a map, words in a dictionary, articles in a newspaper, and information in the library are skills a student will use throughout his adult life. Teaching a student to look for specifics in a story is a good activity for a beginning reader to develop his locating skills.

Remembering skills are the skills on which most teachers concentrate. Studies have shown that about two-thirds of the teacher's questions focus on this skill. (Aschner et al., 1965; Bellack and Davitz, 1963; Guszak, 1966; and McDonald and Zaret, 1967). The quality, not the quantity of questions is most important.

Guszak lists some important remembering tasks for children:

1. Remembering simple sentence content; for example, Dick can run. (What is it that Dick can do?)
2. Remembering the content of two or more simple sentences in sequence; for example, Jane likes to jump. Sally likes to jump. and run. (What is it that Jane and Sally like to do?)
3. Remembering the factual content of complete sentences and complex sentence sets; for example, specific happenings or titles.

Organizing is a skill in which the student can translate what he has read into another form of communication. A pupil should be given the opportunity to retell stories orally and in writing.

Predicting outcomes and extending ideas includes the skill of anticipating how a story might end or predicting what might happen next.

Evaluating is a skill in which the student can weigh the facts carefully and make judgments. (Example: Deciding the author's purpose; judging if the plot is historically correct.)

In teaching these various comprehension skills, Cushenbery recommends some important quidelines:

1. Comprehension is a sum total of many skills.

2. If comprehension skills are to be developed adequately, instruction must be of a sequential direct nature. Planning is essential.
3. Meaningful practice must be provided once a skill has been taught.
4. To teach comprehension skills, reading material at the child's level must be used.
5. Periodic and continuous evaluation of a child's comprehension skill development should be a part of the total reading instruction. Teacher-made tests, standardized tests, and observations should be used to determine the child's development of the reading comprehension skills.
6. The questioning techniques used by the teacher will determine the child's reading purposes. The student must be guided so the planned goals of reading comprehension can be attained.
7. Comprehension skills must be taught by every teacher in every content area.

In addition to guiding the reading program in a direction that encompasses the various reading comprehension skills, the teacher can find a number of aids available. Workbooks with reading comprehension exercises and many other commercial materials can be used effectively to accomplish the teacher's goals.

The specific skills approach to teaching reading comprehension has gained much attention. Proger and Mann (1973) forecast that this approach will be of great benefit for teaching children with learning disabilities. The teacher can isolate the skill or skills with which the student is having difficulties. Instruction can then be focused on mastering that skill.

The criterion-referenced testing (CRT) approach has reading skills listed in a specific sequence. The student is tested for each skill, and if he does not reach an established level of success, teaching activities are provided for him. When the skill is learned, the child can go on the the next skill. The number of skills range up to 450. (Thompson and Dziuban 1973).

Criterion-referenced materials for reading include Read On, (Random House); Prescriptive Reading Inventory, (CTB McGraw-Hill); Reading Skills Development, (National Computer Systems); Individual Pupil Monitoring System-Reading, (Houghton-Mifflin), and Croft In-Service Reading Program, (Croft Educational Services).

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SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR COMPREHENSION

STORY TELLING The children will tell orally to the class stories they have read.

PUZZLES The students make up and solve crossword puzzles in different subject areas. These puzzles can be exchanged and worked.

TREASURE HUNT Take the class on an on-campus treasure hunt with clues planted at various places for them to find. The children themselves could prepare the clues.

PLAY WRITING Read dramatizations and encourage the children to write plays of favorite stories.

DRAW IT Instruct the pupils to read a paragraph and draw a picture showing the main idea or read a story and draw many pictures showing a succession of main points. These pictures can be used in a roll movie or a classroom mural.

PICTURE MATCH Cut out pictures and make a sentence to put under each one. Mix up pictures and captions and let the children match them correctly.

CARTOONING Play a cartoon film and cut off the sound. Have the children tell the story from the pictures. Film strips with no captions may be used in a similar manner. (taken from CREATIVE TEACHING OF READING IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL)

JUMBLED SENTENCES Disarrange sentences. Direct pupils to put the parts in proper order.

MISSING WORDS Prepare numbered sentences containing

missing words. Provide a word list and tell the pupils to choose correct missing words.

OMIT TWO Mount a picture on an individual card together with three sentences that tell something about the picture. Instruct pupils to find the two irrelevant sentences.

SENTENCE DETECTIVE Give directions which refer the children to a picture appearing in a story previously read. Ask them to find all sentences on the page or pages that give more information than what is found in the picture.

SENTENCE MATCH Prepare four sentences. Two of the four say approximately the same thing. Direct the pupils to find the synonymous sentences.

SPLIT SENTENCES Give the children two envelopes. One envelope contains cards with sentence beginnings and the other contains cards with sentence endings. Instruct them to match suitable parts to form sentences.

WHEN? WHAT? WHERE? Prepare sentences which tell when, what, or where. Ask the pupils to read each sentence and categorize it according to these designations.

WHERE'S THE JOKER? Sentences pertaining to a given subject are presented together with a sentence that does not belong. Tell the pupils to find the foreign sentence. (taken from IMPROVING THE READING PROGRAM)

RIDDLES Tell the children to make up and exchange riddles to read in the form of a short paragraph. Instruct them to guess the answer to the riddles.

HUNTING FOR THE ACTION Direct a child to act out

silently a part of a story just read. The other children look for the place telling about it in the story. The one who finds it may read it aloud.

PROVING A TITLE Give the children a short paragraph to read and tell them to find a suitable title for it.

MAKE BELIEVE Pass out cards with sets of directions on them. Select one child to follow the directions on his card. Tell the rest of the group to guess what is on the card. After the pantomime is over, the child reads his card orally to the class.

TAG Write directions on the board for playing a game. Do not give any oral explanation of the directions. Tell the children to read the directions and play the game.

(taken from READING AIDS THROUGH THE GRADES)

INCORPORATING READING INTO THE CONTENT AREA

In the past two decades, emphasis has been brought to bear on the importance of the teaching of reading, not only as a separate subject, but as an integral part of the content area. While both areas require basic reading skills, reading in the content area requires additional skills that are best taught when needed, rather than in isolation.

> Frequently, reading instruction ends at the sixth grade level and students are expected to have acquired the necessary skills that will enable them to cope with reading assignments in the secondary school. Unfortunately, as students progress through the upper grades, their plight becomes more pronounced, since many junior high and senior high school teachers are not aware of how to teach reading in their subject areas (Sanacore, 1974).

Wright and Hounshell point out that not all reading problems begin and end in the elementary grades. The type of reading expected from high school students is much different from that expected of elementary students.

> In elementary school, the reading style is largely narrative; in the upper grades, it is primarily expository. Vocabulary and concepts are more difficult and less familiar in the upper grades, and factual material is characterized by terseness, density of ideas and complexity of sentence structure (Wright and Hounshell, 1978).

"Teachers should become aware of the reading skills of their subject areas and guide students to apply these skills during reading situations" (Sanacore, 1974). (A list of general skills is included in the appendix. This list is not intended to be all inclusive, Wright and Hounshell, 1978). "Most high school teachers throw up their hands at the mere thought of teaching reading in a . . . [content] class" (Wright and Hounshell, 1978). "Many of them resent that they must be reading teachers" (Dupuis and Askov, 1978). They appear to view this task as the responsibility of the

reading specialist. However, many more content area teachers are teaching reading than are aware of it. "Reading, many specialists argue, is, after all, not merely decoding symbols - reading is thinking" (Wright and Hounshell, 1978). The effective teacher in all areas of education must embrace the teaching of the ability to think as a primary goal.

In keeping with the national emphasis on minimal competency, educators are concentrating their efforts on the incorporation of reading into the content areas. "In recent years, researchers and educators have worked toward developing reading strategies applicable to specific content areas" (Lipton and Liss, 1978). A large number of articles have been written on the teaching of reading in almost all areas.

Many states are requiring one or more reading courses for secondary reading certification in all subjects (Wright and Hounshell, 1978). Some systems rely heavily upon Reading and English teachers to assist the content area teachers. However, this method does not appear to be the most efficient arrangement. The conclusion of one study indicates that

> Reading teachers need considerable help before they can become effective resource teachers for content teachers. Reading teachers need to be taught specific skills for working with other professionals. They need to become confident that they can work as equals with content area teachers who have heavy discipline oriented backgrounds. . . . Reading teachers must realize that they cannot and don't need to - know as much history, chemistry or math as the content area teacher. Reading teachers, however, must have a sure knowledge of developmental as well as remedial reading skills and techniques. They must have thorough knowledge of techniques for working with adolescents and of adolescent students' attitudes and interests (Dupuis and Askov, 1978).

Some systems employ reading coordinators and reading specialists whose major task is that of assisting the content area teachers in the teaching of reading (Lipton and Liss, 1978). Studies indicate that this approach also is hampered by many of the problems the Reading and English teachers face. Many teachers of the content area seem to resist change and resent the intrusion from the reading specialists, as well as the Reading and English teachers.

Fortunately, "content area teachers are beginning to realize that they need not be reading teachers, but that they must teach students to fully absorb and comprehend content material through reading" (Lipton and Liss, 1978). Studies also indicate that reading teachers and specialists are becoming more secure in their area of specialty as the importance of their role in our schools becomes more evident. "Certainly, unless there is cooperation among content area teachers and reading specialists, combined with a mutual understanding of basic reading fundamentals and problems, the students will ultimately suffer" (Lipton and Liss, 1978).

According to Dupuis and Askov (1978), the "critical first step in changing behavior [in this case, the desired behavior being the teaching of reading in the content area] is changing attitude." Many school systems are accomplishing this task through inservice training in which they attempt to increase the self-awareness among content area teachers concerning their teaching habits (Lipton and Liss, 1978). Upon becoming aware of ineffectual teaching habits, teachers can more readily effect a change in classroom practice.

Some systems have brought in authorities from other areas for inservice training, however,

> literature suggests that the most efficient inservice model for change is one which uses a consultant already employed by the school district e.g., curriculum coordinator, reading supervisor, rather than one which brings in an outside visiting expert (Dupuis and Askov, 1978).

Ideally, the consultants should be ones who are known and respected in the educational system. They should be skilled in working with people, thus enabling them to lead, guide and encourage teachers as they progress toward the goal of integrating reading into the content area.

As a basis upon which to establish a sound program, administrators or curriculum coordinators should establish clear lines of responsibility for the inclusion of reading into the content areas. Above all, those directing the change process should make every effort to let the teachers involved know that their efforts are appreciated (Dupuis and Askov, 1978).

In conclusion, to obtain maximum learning in all areas, reading must be incorporated into the content areas. All teachers must become aware of and willing to teach the reading skills necessary to the understanding and mastery of their particular discipline. As we strive to reach this goal, our educational system will be striding toward true literacy of all students.

READING STUDY SKILLS

I. Locating information
In text:

1. Tables of contents
2. Indexes
3. Appendices
4. Glossaries
5. Footnotes
6. Bibliographies
7. Chapter headings
8. Unit titles
9. Keys
10. Cross-references

Reference books:

1. Encyclopedia
2. Dictionaries
3. Atlases
4. Almanacs
5. Periodical indexes
6. Library card catalogs

II. Selecting information:

Recognizing main ideas
Differentiating between relevant and irrelevant ideas
Differentiating between supporting and nonsupporting ideas
Noting important details

III. Organizing information:

Note-taking
Outlining
Summarizing information

IV. Using graphic aids:

Maps
Graphs
Charts
Tables
Cartoons
Illustrations

V. Following directions

VI. Developing reading flexibility:

Scanning for specific information
Skimming for general ideas
Slow, careful reading and rereading for detailed mastery
(Wright and Hounshell, 1976)

TECHNIQUES AND PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS DEVELOPING READING IN THE CONTENT AREAS

There is increased public concern about school children's basic skill levels and the need for minimum competency tests, which places part of the responsibility for reading skills development on the content area teacher (Koenke, 1978). There are several ways to achieve this goal, one of which is matching the reader to the text. Another way would be to apply teaching techniques for improving comprehension, vocabulary, and study skills.

An excellent technique would be to create study guides which are complete and ready for the teacher to use whenever appropriate that are developed around a topic for a specific content area. Teaching ideas for increasing student's comprehension of content materials could also be employed by the use of easy-to-read paperback books taken from a reading list developed specially for a particular course of study.

Teaching reading implies careful consideration to developing skill in word analysis, comprehension, and other areas so that the reader can operate efficiently with what he is reading. These skills are tools and not ends in themselves. Most readers do not read to find out how many errors in logic a writer has made or how many times an adjective appears in one paragraph. Most reading is done for information and pleasure. The student must get involved in what he reads to the point that he puts himself in place of a character in the story, for instance.

One of the first things a content area teacher should do is to be sure that her students are interested in the topic about to be studied. Topics may be placed in focus through the use of provocative questions, curious excerpts from the material to be studied, interesting headings in the table of contents, student experience in a "show and tell" situation, handout materials from outside sources, and a host of others not mentioned here.

Questions and discussions are often used to introduce a topic to be studied. This technique should not be overdone or used each time a new unit of study is introduced.

In using excerpts from the material to be studied, simply writing a quote or verse, for example, from a poem in a literature class may be a good place to gain student's attention. This excerpt may be written on the chalkboard or can be read orally to the class. The teacher can then have students give their opinion of what the author meant before delving into the reading itself. Students will be interested to find out if their opinion matched that of the author in any way.

There are bound to be words in the reading context to be studied that will cause problems in the comprehension process for many readers. The teacher may want to bring attention to these words, phrases, or clauses and stand ready during and after a reading assignment to assure individual students understand what they could not grasp on their own.

Content areas contain an abundance of specialized terms and phrases common to that particular subject area. These terms must be developed and understood for each student to understand fully what he has read. Students should be provided with positive reinforcement through direct contact with the technical language by listening to it pronounced correctly, and by writing, speaking, and reading it. Students should be taught to use this technical language and not avoid it.

A teacher may use the survey or preview method of reviewing the text to be read. This is an organized preliminary look at the entire text to be studied, whether it is a chapter, a unit, a section, or an entire book. Surveying the title and the table of contents may be one way of achieving this. The use of figures, tables, pictures, and charts which are included in the context may be scanned first as a quick preview of what is to come. This will also help to gain student's interest in the topics to be discussed and start their thinking processes. It will also give foresight into extracurricular reading or projects that he or she may want to work on.

The content area teacher will need to employ the use of the chalkboard, reference materials, audiovisual materials, word analysis skills, demonstrations, guest speakers, outside projects, and other explanatory means appropriate to the content subject for variety in the classroom.

The textbook for any content subject is merely one of the sources of stimulation used for pupil development. For most students, independent activities through knowledge gained in other phases of the lesson will be helpful. Most students who have gained adequate understanding of the presented material will be very enthusiastic about going beyond the text material through independent and small group activities which present them with an opportunity to practice and refine the learned principles of the lesson. The different kinds of experiences will vary depending upon the subject matter studied.

For other students the independent or group activities will be a sort of re-teaching device. Usually these students need to use materials on a lower readability level in order to achieve satisfaction. They will also need more help in understanding and using the technical terms that may appear in the lesson. One method of re-teaching would be to have a student on a higher reading level work with one on a lower level for several minutes during classtime. This activity could be done in small groups or sets of two.

Content area teachers should also develop comprehension to the fullest in each particular area of study. Some aids in doing this would be having students outline the particular area from the text to his or her best ability. This can be achieved even though a student may not have had former instruction in the techniques of outlining.

Students should be encouraged to read for details by being given specific purposes in their reading. After reading the text material and receiving classroom instruction with visual aids or any of the above-mentioned helps, the student could be asked to do a homework assignment on summarizing what has been learned in a particular area or unit of study. The students may then be asked to write down any questions they are not sure of so that the teacher can give further time in class to specific areas or individualized instruction where necessary.

Students may also be asked to aid the teacher in preparing visual aids for the context area. Groups of students may be assigned certain projects such as bulletin board displays, drawings, charts, or even transparencies for the overhead projector.

Reading is a challenge that <u>each</u> and <u>every</u> teacher must accept. To most students the undeveloped reading potential is more of a challenge than the subject matter to be studied. Every teacher should be perceptive to the needs of their individual students and must be instructed in the specific skills needed for each content subject. The content reading classes are the appropriate place for teaching reading skills for each particular subject. Therefore, this effort is a joint function of all teachers and the end-product is professional satisfaction in observing youngsters as they meet the challenges of education today with great enthusiasm.

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PHONICS

Phonics is not an isolated word-recognition technique, but must be used in combination with other techniques to provide a well-developed and effective reading program. The term "phonics" refers to the association of phonemes (speech sounds) to graphemes (printed symbols). This phonetic segment of the total reading program teaches children how to use the letter-sound relationships to decode unfamiliar words. (Forgan, 1978).

The mastery of phonic skills is an important stage in becoming an independent reader (Burns and Roe, 1979). Children not only use phonics to sound out words, but also to check words previously derived from context clues. Children also need some knowledge of phonics in spelling, and in order to get meaning from phonetic spellings that follow entries in dictionaries and/or glossaries. The readers refer to pronunciation keys and then say the sounds that the symbols represent (Forgan, 1978).

The productivity of phonic instruction is limited by the irregularity of the English language; yet there are certain phonic generalizations which enable children to decode the majority of words that they encounter in their reading materials (Burns and Roe, 1979).

"Flexibility" in the application of phonic generalizations is necessary. In fact, classroom observations point out repeatedly that one obvious difference between good and poor

decoders is their ability to use generalizations flexibly (Jenkins, 1980). Other disadvantages of the phonic program are: 1) It does not offer help with word meanings, and 2) it is helpful only with words already known to the child's listening vocabulary (Durkin, 1972). Forgan also lists certain prerequisites of phonic instruction as 1) auditory discrimination, 2) an adequate listening vocabulary, 3) oral language development, 4) visual-motor skills, 5) an interest in learning to read, and 6) the knowledge of letter names (Forgan, 1978).

Studies have supported at least four arguments in favor of phonetic training. Findings show that phonic lessons, when consistent and in large amounts: 1) increase the independence in recognizing new words previously learned, 2) aid in "unlocking" new words, 3) encourage correct pronunciation, and 4) improve the quality of oral reading (Agnew, 1979).

Phonic drills were presented daily to sixth grade children to determine the effects of a ten-minute phonic drill upon reading progress. It was concluded that the reading progress in sixth grade may be aided by phonics and that most children, regardless of intelligence, are likely to profit from phonics. The greatest reading gains in favor of phonics were recorded for children whose intelligence quotients ranged between 90 and 109.

The first experiment to compare the achievements of beginners in reading taught with or without phonics was that of Currier and Duguld. Two groups, each from the first and second grades were selected; they were equal in size and ability. One division of each group was given phonetic drills of all words.

The other group received no phonetic instruction; all words were developed by "a quick perception and sense content method." Findings concluded that the non-phonetic classes, though often careless and inaccurate, were more interested and read more swiftly and with greater expression. The ability to attack unfamiliar words was about the same in both classes. Those who profited most from the phonic drills were foreign children and those children with speech defects.

A study by Garrison and Heard followed four groups of beginners through the first three years of school. Two groups of bright and dull children received fifteen minutes of daily phonetic drill. At the end of third grade: 1) the bright phonetic group displayed a slight superiority in silent reading, 2) the non-phonetic groups showed greater gain in oral readings, and 3) both phonetic groups excelled in word pronunciation.

The results also showed that children trained in phonics are more independent in the pronunciation of words, but those receiving no phonetic drills make smoother and better oral readers in the primary grades. The children in the phonetic group also showed some advantage over those in the non-phonetic groups in learning to spell (Browne, 1979).

Likewise, Weber also considers phonics as merely one of the many skills necessary for successful reading. He found that children use various types of cues (phonic, grammatical, and meaning) to recognize words; he also noted that toward the

end of the first grade, children become more reliant upon phonic cues. It was also noted that the high-achieving children used phonic cues more than did the non-achievers (Weber, 1966).

Since the beginning of the nineteenth century, phonetic instruction has had numerous periods of popularity and unpopularity (Agnew, 1979). Yet, educators must realize that phonic instruction alone is not reading; it is only one of the skills necessary for successful reading. If teachers combine phonics in an eclectic approach with various other techniques for teaching reading, children should develop in all aspects of reading as well as in phonetic analysis (Dechant, 1970).

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SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING PHONICS

Begin with consonants since consonants usually begin words and consonant sounds are more constant. Present the students with a consonant sound (e. g. "B"). Have the students trace the consonant on their paper or the board as they repeat its sound. Present the students with a group of pictures containing some pictures of objects or animals which begin with "B". Let the students pick out the pictures that begin with "B". Then have the students give original "B" words. This procedure may be repeated for each sound studied.

After studying each sound, give the students colorful cut-outs stating they have learned that sound. For example, give a colorful ball or balloon cutout with the words "I have learned the B sound" printed on it. Have the students trace the "B" with their finger or pencil while pronouncing the word for review.

Present each student with a sheet of paper having on it several lists of four words each. Each list contains one word beginning with the sound being studied and there is a picture of that word beside the list. Have the students circle the word that names the picture. They may then color the picture and trace the word.

Example: (for "B")

ax bed pin milk	(picture of a bed)	boat pear engine man	(picture of a boat)
egg moon bus pie	(picture of a bus)	apple bell pipe mail	(picture of a bell)

Give each student a party hat with a picture fastened to it. Let the students move around until each finds a partner who has a picture having the same beginning sound as his or her own. (Make sure when passing out the hats, that each student will have a partner.) No letter is stressed, just the sounds. This activity may also be used for final sounds.

Mark off cards in sixteen blocks as on a bingo card. In each block write a letter or combination of letters that the class has studied (e. g., bl, ph, th, etc.), making a variety of cards. The sounds are called out and the students place markers over the letters. Winning is determined as in bingo. The cards may be exchanged to play again.

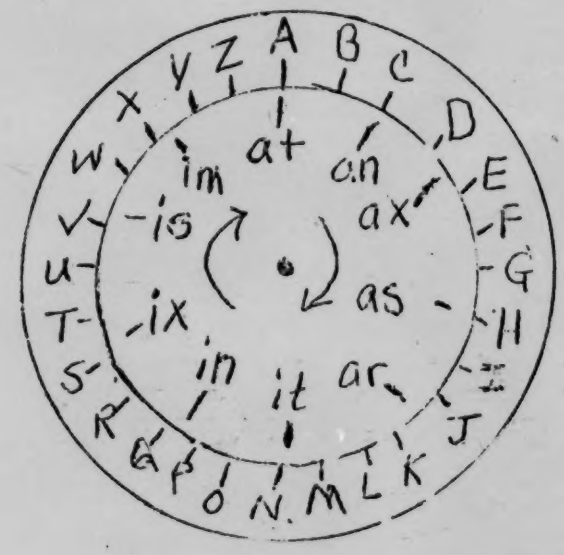
In another bingo-like game, write sixteen appropriate words on the cards, making a variety of cards. The students cover with markers "the word in which the letter A makes the same sound as you hear in the word lake", "the word in which the letter E makes the same sound as in the word red", and so on.

Post one picture of an object or animal whose name contains the long e and another which contains the short e (e.g., zebra and nest). Pass out cards with words containing either the long or short e. Have each student pronounce his or her word and match it to either the zebra or nest picture. The game may be repeated for each new vowel sound.

Write a list of words on the board. Give the students clues to one of the words, such as "I am thinking of a word which has a short i", or "I am thinking of a word which has the long a sound", and so on. The students guess the word

and then give original words having the same sound.

Cut two large circles from cardboard, making one somewhat larger than the other. Fasten the two circles together in the center so that the smaller top circle can be spun around on the lower larger circle. Place the letters of the alphabet on the lower circle and word endings such as an, ax, at, as, etc. on the top circle. Let the students spin the wheel and see how many words they can make by combining the letter and the word endings. Have the students make a list of the words they find and pronounce each word.



Fashion a "magic wand" with a large star at the end. Put a large E on the star. Next write words such as pin, can, man, hop, fin, pan, not, dim, etc. on large cards and post these cards. The student first pronounces the word on the card, then touches the "magic E" to the end of the word on the card and pronounces the new word he or she has made.

Take two boxes. Label one box "Noisy E's" and the other box "Silent E's". Give each student a card having a word on it containing either a sounded or silent e. Divide the students into two groups of equal numbers. Each student comes forward and places his card in a box. One point is received for placing the card in the correct box. The group with the most points when the game is finished is the winner.

Give each student a card with a sentence containing silent e's written on it. Construct a game board with spaces on it for the students to move a marker along. Divide the students into two equal groups. Have one student from each group man the game board for his group. Each student counts the silent e's in his sentence. The "marker mover" for his group moves the marker forward for each correct answer and back one space for each incorrect answer or omission. The group reaching the "finish line" first are the winners.

READING RATE

Improving reading rate is usually thought of as being a subject for adult reading improvement, or for secondary schools; however, improving reading rate has been successfuly done in elementary schools. In this report, reading rate will be discussed at all three levels: adult, secondary, and elementary. Research has been done on reading rate of which some will be mentioned in this report.

Many authorities in speed reading talk about flexibility. This term means the ability to read fast when you want to or when the situation calls for it. When studying for a test, you usually do not read fast, in fact, you should probably use a study skill because you are involved in a learning-retention process. At other times, the "density of ideas" or amount of new information is so great that slower rates are necessary. However, there are many times when improved rate is desirable. Reading newspapers, some books, letters, etc., does not call for study-skill type reading or for reading at a slow rate. Students who do not have flexibility in rate tend to have one speed and it is usually slow. If you read everything at the same speed, you probably are not a very efficient reader. Training for faster rate and flexibility should begin in the elementary school. (Fry (1977)

How do you improve rate? The basic process is to give a series of timed drills followed by comprehension questions. Usually records are kept both of reading rate in words per minute, and of comprehension scores. The teacher exhorts the students to read a little faster each drill.

Sometimes there are special lessons in skimming, and sometimes there are audiovisual devices that encourage faster reading by flashing phrases or by controlling the rate of exposure of printed material. The timed drills usually extend over a period of weeks. Since drills are often individualized, in the sense that students might all start together but are reading against their own previous rates, there is no reason why students with different reading levels can not be reading different level materials at the same time. The teacher, besides encouraging each student to read a little faster each time, should also keep a careful watch on the speed-comprehension balance. Students with a low rate but consistently high comprehension should be encouraged to read faster, while students who have poor comprehension should maintain their present rate and concentrate on comprehension. (Fry 1977)

Contrary to the belief of many people unfamiliar with the work of the eye in reading, the eye does not sweep smoothly across the page in reading. As we read, the eye stops and starts, making a series of short, quick movements. These are often referred to as saccadic movements. We do not see clearly as the eye moves; therefore, in order to see a word (s), our eyes must stop and fixate, move to the next word, or small group of words, then fixate again. Most researchers agree that it takes from 1/25 to 1/30 of a second for the eye to move from one fixation to the next, and it also takes from 1/25 to 1/30 of a second for the eye to sweep from the end of one line of print to the beginning of the next. According to Albert Harris (1970), the average span of recognition of words or the average number of words makes it possible to see clearly during each fixation runs from .45 for an

While reading, he quickly checks what he already knows, making what reorganization he needs to assimilate any new ideas presented. If the reader is presented with few new ideas, few new words, uncomplicated sentences, and simple paragraph construction, he will read much faster than he would if the material presented many new ideas and words not included in his background knowledge. Another aspect of the rate at which a person will read a passage presented to him is that it is possible that a person has a great deal of background knowledge concerning a subject, but because of his poor basic reading skills, the technical vocabulary and other aspects of reading may still hinder his comprehension. He may read very slowly and struggle to understand what he is reading, or he may read very fast and not comprehend it. (Pickett 1971)

The speed of the readers reactions to stimuli is another factor. This factor varies from individual to individual, and it may affect a person's reading rates as well as other aspects of his behavior. It is probable that within a certain measured range, a person who habitually reacts slowly to most stimuli may be motivated to react more quickly to many things he does well, including the rate at which he reads. However, it is also probable that he can be pushed beyond a rate most efficient for him. He might then react in a disorganized, inefficient manner. This pattern would upset his use of those skills which he could use efficiently if he were not under pressure. A reader's personality pattern usually affects the rate at which he reacts to outward stimuli. Clinicians caution against instructional techniques which involve pressure, because an individual's basic security may be challenged if he is pushed beyound the range in which he works comfortably.

If he tries and fails, he will need support and understanding. (Pickett 1971)

There are many ways to approach "practice with effort to improve" rates of reading. One way is to read against time. If this method is used, the material on which practice is based should be easy for the individual to read. It should contain few new ideas; the vocabulary in context should not be new to him; and the reading process should not require the application of basic reading skills not fully mastered by the individual. Pressure should be applied only to the extent that the individual responds positively to it. Hardly anyone will question the idea that an efficient reader should vary his rate of reading according to his purpose and according to the kinds of materials he reads. (Pickett 1971)

The latest attempt to separate fact from fiction in the areas of reading rate and flexibility took place at a National Reading Conference session entitled "Speed Reading or Efficient Reading? Directions for the Future". Caver performed a study involving the instruments used in the only doctoral dissertation of graduates of the Evelyn Wood Reading Dynamics Program completed in 1965. The dissertation found no significant difference in the comprehension of a group of 25 "normal" readers and a group of 25 graduates of the Evelyn Wood Program, even though the latter group read at 1,300 words a minute--three times faster than the control group--on the posttest. (Berger 1972)

Research by Brown and McDowell involving 70 university students revealed that self-image is a significant variable in improving reading efficiency.

Initially, before acquiring first-hand reading rate and comprehension experience, students put their upper rate limit at 565 words-per-minute on the average, a figure well below the 700 to 900 wpm limit previously mentioned. This self-image figure was 309 wpm above the first actual reading rate of 256 wpm, a situation strongly encouraging further increase in rate. By the fifth week, after reading approximately 50 articles of varing difficulty and length, the students' self-image increased to 1,241 wpm. Their actual rate at that time was 992 wpm.

Research by Weinstein and Weinstein on sixty fourth grade students in an open space school during periods of quiet and periods of naturally occuring background noise detected no adverse effect on performance, with the exception of a slight tendency to work more slowly in noise. This fact was true across all ability levels.

Dahl and Samuels used the "Repeated Reading's" technique to increase reading rate. For repeated readings, a passage of interest to the student which is also at the student's instructional level is used. The passage should be meaningful and should contain no more than 100 words. The student is given the passage and told to read it silently so that she/he can read it orally with few errors and at a comfortable rate. After silent reading, the student reads the passage to the teacher, who counts oral reading errors and times the reading. If the student makes more than 5 errors per 100 words, the passage is too difficult to use and an easier one should be chosen. If no more than 5 errors per 100 words are made by the student, the teacher tells him/her the time it took and suggests that the student practice the material silently again so that she/he can read it more fluently the next time.

This process is repeated until the student has read the passage three or four times with an increase in rate and fluency each time. Of course, while some students are practicing, another can be reading to the teacher, a method which makes it possible to use repeated readings with a small group of disabled readers. Also, each student can have a different passage, depending on her/his instructional level and interest. This careful research by Dahl and Samuels indicates that repeated reading does increase the reader's comprehension as well as his fluency.

Reading rate can be improved in adult schools, secondary schools, and elementary schools. With the many factors mentioned that can and do affect reading rate, it can be concluded that researchers have proven certain techniques can and will improve ones reading rate based on the factors affecting it.

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SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING READING RATE

You can give children picture books at a very young age and let them get skimming and scanning practice. In skimming a book, they would get the general feeling of what is happening. In scanning, they can look for specific facts.

Taken from Making Better Readers.

Make a telephone directory for the class. Let them scan the list for a particular number.

Taken from Making Better Readers.

When beginning a new chapter, let the children skim the chapter to determine what concepts are presented. Help them by directing them to look at chapter title, headings, subheadings, summary and introductory statements.

Taken from The Reading Box.

The student can skim the editorial of the newspaper to learn what general philosophy the writer expresses.

Taken from The Reading Box.

Allowing children to listen to a tape while following the same material with their eyes helps to build reading speed. They can silently read along without worrying about the unknown words. Then let them practice reading orally and silently without tape. This could be a newspaper article or any other article.

Taken from Reading Activities for Today's Elementary Schools.

Give students dittoed work. Allow them to underline the main idea and key words. This improves speed over reading

articles that have not been so marked.

Taken from The Reading Box.

Scanning to find specific information is also good. The pupils learn to find the answers to stated questions by first using the index. Then with only a page as a guide, they must rapidly scan to find the answer. This can be done as a game where the side that finds it first gets a point for his side. It can also be done individually with chapter questions.

Taken from The Reading Box.

Duplicate an outline giving only the main idea and through reading they can fill in the details of the article.

Taken from Teaching Reading Skills Through the Newspaper.

Use flash cards to develop speed with comprehension. You can start with letters of the alphabet, increase to words and then to phrases of increasing length. Use phrases from the reader and gradually progress to short easy paragraphs.

Taken from The Reading Box.

Help children practice phrasing (reading meaningful groups of words) instead of individual words. Remind them to move only their eyes when reading. Lip and hand movements are slowing down their reading rate. Have a poster to demonstrate how much slower they read when they read word by word. Place a diagonal line between each word in a short paragraph. Rewrite the paragraph and place a diagonal line between every second word. Rewrite it a third time dividing the sentence into two or three parts. Practice each way to see how much

faster they can read the third paragraph.

Taken from Making Better Readers.

Using paragraphs from about one grade level below the students operating level in reading and keeping them short, allow them to read three to four minutes. Have four to five questions to check comprehension. Let the student keep a record of his words per minute. This can be done daily for a period of several weeks and a speed graph drawn to show daily progress.

Taken from The Reading Box.

Timed readings can come from the textbook or from other reading sources. Keep them to a short period of time and easy reading material to start. Have children graph their reading rate. They should be able to answer comprehension questions from these. Stress improvement rate without loss of comprehension.

Taken from Reading Activities for Today's Elementary Schools.

The Tachistoscope or flashmeter flashes forms, figures, words, phrases and sentences at a fraction of a second for groups. The word is flashed and they write or tell what they see. A game could be made out of this to build motivation.

Taken from Making Better Readers.

High School Reading Training Films (Iowa) flash words and phrases in connected meaningful context. They begin at a slow rate and increase speed as they progress through the series. Students' comprehension is tested by multiple-choice

questions on inference, conclusion, main idea, details, and vocabulary.

The Controlled Reader flashes a line at a time. Materials beginning at reading readiness and going to college level have been developed for the Controlled Reader.

Taken from Making Better Readers.

The McCall, Crabbs Standard Test Lessons in Reading have been used for improving reading rate in upper grades and secondary school. They have three minutes to read paragraphs and have questions to answer measuring comprehension. Approximate grade scores are given for each exercise.

Taken from How to Increase Reading Ability.

The Rateometer can be used with the SRA Better Reading Book. Explain the process of using this carefully and they will be motivated to increase rate of reading without loss of comprehension.

Taken from How to Increase Reading Ability.

The SRA Rate Builders are individualized, but can be used with a group. They include self-checking questions and answer cards and are timed on a three minute teacher controlled basis. They are popular with students and each student can graph his progress.

Taken from The Reading Box.

READING READINESS

Good (1959) defines reading readiness as a level in a child's development requisite for learning to read, usually understood to imply a chronological age of six years, and an intelligence quotient of one hundred or more, and no special handicaps such as severe personality maladjustments, mutism, faulty vision or hearing, etc. to interfere with progress; the physical mental and emotional motivation necessary for understanding instruction in reading at a given level of difficulty.

Buttery (1979) feels that educational thought today takes a broader view of the concept of reading readiness:

> Children's readiness or maturation stage is considered only one aspect of the complex maze of learning to read. Attention now focuses on the kind and quality of instruction to be offered. The process of learning to read does not require children to be ready to learn everything at once. It is recognized that children learn in uneven increments, and the vital readiness factor is that the child be able to learn the first step. Emphasis is placed on assessing the relevant ability of each child, identifying the available methodologies and finally assisting the teacher to co-ordinate children and their selective abilities with methodologies in terms of what is required of the learner.

Many researchers agree that readiness deficiencies need early detection, but labeling of children at so tender an age could be detrimental, also. (Lerner 1976)

There is a long list of reading readiness criteria that will be considered before reading readiness is achieved. If the child still cannot read after he has been evaluated on these, then professionals and trained diagnosticians will

review his case study.

The child will bring with him to kindergarten or the first grade a certain level of language development that according to Miller (1976) began soon after birth, and some researchers feel this began in utero. He must develop a certain listening ability and be able to sit still enough for brief periods of time for his age. Usually there will be a speech therapist to evaluate his speech, but he should be able to speak in sentences, coherently. Depending on his experiences and environment, he will have a certain vocabulary range. Seventy words seem to be agreed on by many leaders in education. Activities in the classroom should enhance language development for those who do not enter with enriched experiences.

Intellectual development is an important reading readiness criterion. The child must be able to think, to sequence events, and possess an intellect high enough to be considered normal to be a successful reader; however, teachers must be careful in making estimates concerning a child's potential. He must also be able to categorize.

Miller (1976) stated, "their sum total experiences are present." What effect does the home have on each child? Do his parents read? Does the father live at home? Sciara (1974) concluded that the presence of father in the home does affect reading scores and reading readiness. Popular opinion, and some research show that children are the ones who suffer most from divorce. How many siblings are there in his family?

What is his position? How many children have traveled, and have had their early childhood so enriched with meaningful experiences that many may already be reading? What about the disadvantaged and culturally deprived, rich or poor? Kindergarten and first grades will have to provide experiences for these unfortunate children.

Current literature and studies reflect the success of children who have attended nursery schools, Head Start, kindergarten and other programs. This researcher feels kindergartens should be compulsory in all states, and diagnostic readiness testing should be implemented, but with care. Areas of speech, hearing, and sight are being evaluated and screened at the present time. Cunningham (1979) concluded that a structured language experience program showed significant progress in children who had had no kindergarten experience. Another study stated that parent participation in these programs showed a correlation between this and reading scores and readiness. Parents are probably responsible for the successful learning of their children whether they intended it or not.

A child's physical development must be evaluated early in his life. This would include vision, general health, and motor co-ordination screening. There must be good visual perception as well as visual discrimination. He must be able to match forms, letters, and finally words. Auditory acuity of high and low sounds, and auditory discrimination of letters, words, and nonsense syllables should be good. He

must be able to filter sounds from the environment, as well as, distracting sight and movement. Allergies and chronic illness need close checks. Diet and rest need consideration, and programs should include these criteria. Motor co-ordination is essential. Can he move his eyes from left to right? Up and down? Can he draw lines from object to object? There must be rhythmic activities in the readiness programs. Let us test his gross and fine motor development. He must touch objects. We must find his avenue of best learning and "leave no stone unturned". Piaget stresses stimulation of the senses in readiness and learning to read.

His social development should be analyzed. Is his attitude positive toward school and learning? Is there good rapport between the child, teacher, and his peers? He must be able to work in small groups for limited time spans. He must be relaxed and not tense or anxious most of the time. Development of self-control must be practiced by him because he may be very self-centered and want to monopolize time as demand instant answers and help. Related literature stresses the importance of a good, positive self-concept. If he is ready to learn to read or can, with some success, look at his self-concept and self-esteem. He has to be able to see himself and have some idea of his own worth. This idea of formation of a good positive self-concept will be needed throughout life. Help him develop this as soon as possible. There are many stories and children's books that will help contribute to a good self-concept. In social development is the

fact that boys tend to be more hostile and question life, girls may accept the demands of society easier and conform. Society is seeing a change in this image at the present time. More boys have learning disabilities than girls, and more elementary teachers are female than male. What is the correlation? Should the programs be more male-oriented because the girls will learn anyway? Is reading more female-oriented? All these questions need further research and study.

The child's chronological age will be important for him. It has been suggested that 6.6 years is the ideal age to learn to read. Remember, though, each child sitting in your class is unique. His individual needs will try to be met. We will teach him his letters since a number of studies show that this has a high correlation to success in learning to read. Cultivate an interest in reading by providing materials, reading to him, and by being a model.

It is our responsibility as reading specialists and classroom teachers coupled with trained diagnosticians to screen, diagnose, and provide the treatment necessary in a reading readiness program for each child. He may not be ready even after this period of time. Readiness may continue through several grades. Do not assume he is prepared.

Teachers are not superhumans as educators! We can only accomplish a certain amount, but remember that each child leaves his home and attends school regardless of his desires. He begins a long trip through education in preparing himself

for his position in society. He must desire to learn and apply himself. The readiness program demands a great deal from this individual as well as his instructors! The task seems impossible! Good rapport will be worth the effort.

In conclusion, everything possible will be done for each child that is in our power to do so. Our eyes will remain open for new information and techniques. If he still cannot read later and has made little progress, we will be able to say, "we have done our best, we gave it our all." We made the effort! Maybe some individuals will be able to face this world and its problems because you were there when he needed you.

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SUGGESTED PRESCRIPTIONS FOR READING READINESS

LIMITED ORAL LANGUAGE. Enrich language experiences; be a good model. Increase experiental background; request help from home. Read and dramatize stories. Show and discuss interesting pictures. Utilize projectors and audio equipment.

LACK OF INTEREST IN READING. Keep learning sessions brief and direct. Keep interest high and present student activities. Stress the positive and show value in reading. Capitalize on student's interest.

DIFFERENT DIALECT. Accept student's language and provide a school model for him. Be patient and don't let him feel inadequate.

DIFFERENT CULTURAL BACKGROUND. Attempt to provide essential experiences. Enrich language for the student, listening and speaking. Assist the home in providing support for the student.

VISUAL DISCRIMINATION PROBLEMS. Employ activities where the student finds like objects, pictures, geometric forms, letters, and then whole words.

AUDITORY DISCRIMINATION PROBLEMS: Employ activities where the student identifies different objects. Employ activities where the student notes like sounds, gross sounds, word sounds, letter sounds in beginning, ending and middle positions. Employ activities where the student finds unlike sounds.

READING READINESS GAMES AND ACTIVITIES

ANIMALS ON THE FARM

Skill Development: Following written directions, classification, creative expression, number concepts, and positive self-image.

Construction: Enclose 14" x 9" newsprint sheets in a wallpaper or felt cover to make a book. Write directions or titles for each page.

Utilization: The student should draw a picture that corresponds to each title or draw as many items as the page states. This activity encourages young readers to work independently.

ALPHABET WORD BOX

Skill Development: Initial or final consonants and oral language development.

Construction: Cover stockings boxes or other small boxes with felt or contact paper. Attach a sandpaper or felt letter or a colorful picture to the front of the box.

Utilization: Students are to collect pictures from old magazines and put them in the appropriate boxes. To build concepts and to enhance oral language development, the pupils may discuss their pictures in small or large group situations.

ALPHABET PUZZLE

Skill Development: Alphabetical Sequence.

Construction: Cut strips of green posterboard 25" x 4". Every five inches apart, write a letter of the alphabet in sequential order. Between each letter draw a wide vertical zigzag line in half so that the line shows on both parts of the puzzle. Make a folder for the puzzle.

Utilization: When the puzzle is put together correctly, the letters will be in alphabetical order. Each puzzle should contain no more than five letters until the child's skill improve.

COLOR PUZZLE

Skill Development: Color recognition, eye-hand coordination, and shape recognition.

Construction: Use pink, yellow, green, and blue posterboard. Cut a pink circle 6½" in diameter, a yellow triangle 8" x 8" x 8", a green square 6", and a blue rectangle 6" x 11". Cut each shape into parts to make a puzzle, and number each part of the puzzle. Cut the circle into two parts, the square into three parts, the triangle into four parts, and the rectangle into five parts. Make a folder for the puzzles when they are not in use.

Utilization: Ask a pupil to take all the pieces of one color

from the envelope and put them together to make a shape. Have him identify the color and name the shape that he assembled. The child should begin with the puzzle with the least number of parts and progress to the five-part puzzle.

MATCHING GAME

Skill Development: Visual discrimination and visual memory.

Construction: Make one set of large cards to be used by the teacher. Make a set of small cards for each student. Begin with odd designs and move first to capital letters and then to lower case.

Utilization: For visual discrimination exercises, the teacher raises her card and the students hold up a matching card. For visual memory, the teacher raises her card for ten seconds while the students watch. Then the teacher removes her card and asks the students to find the same card and raise it.

STANDARDIZED READING TESTS

A review of Mental Measurement Yearbook and Reading Tests and Reviews shows that hundreds of reading tests are available, in print at this time. How, then, is a test chosen that will be best for a particular school? The purpose of this paper is to aid the test selector by giving some values of standardized tests, showing the differences between criterion-referenced tests and norm-referenced tests, giving limitations of these two tests, and providing the selector a list of tests from which to choose.

A reading program of today must have a standardized testing program to be of value. One of the "most important values" is that it lets teachers know as accurately as possible about a student's abilities. Tests also help in evaluating a total reading program. Another value is in "diagnosis of the strengths and weaknesses" of a student or group. Early testing also aids in identifying the gifted student. (Traxler, 1970).

Two tests to be discussed are the criterion-referenced tests and norm-referenced tests. Criterion-referenced tests are composed of items "which can be related easily and meaningfully to specific objectives and specific standards of performance that have been determined independent of the measurement process." Norm-referenced tests are made to "provide comparative information" which is compared to standards that are dependent on the testing process.

One of the major differences of the two types of tests is that criterion-referenced tests describes strengths and weaknesses of individuals or groups rather than "compare their

performance." Norm-referenced tests "rank" students while criterion-reference tests give the " level of performance."

Another difference is that norm-referenced tests require the student to "recognize" a correct answer. The criterion-referenced tests ask the student to "produce" the answer. The two tests are so much alike in their format, such as vocabulary multiple-choice items, that this causes less reliability on some items in the criterion-reference tests.

Another difference of these tests should be of concern to teachers and supervisors. Items on a criterion-reference test are chosen for a particular skill objective to determine if a particular student has mastered that skill. The norm-referenced test ranks or compares that student's performance with other students nation wide. There will be times when the supervisor will want to know how well the student has learned the criteria set up for that school system. At other times, it may help in evaluating a reading program to find out how the student compares to other students throughout the nation. (Womer, 1974)

While looking at values of standardized testing, it is also necessary to look at some of the limitations of testing. Some limitations of a test will discourage the use of that test. On the other hand, some limitations will have to be accepted since there is no one true way to get an absolute measurement of a person's reading ability.

One outstanding limitation is difficulty to distinguish between "reading comprehension and measurement of intelligence." Reading is thinking and thinking is the method

performance." Norm-referenced tests "rank" students while criterion-reference tests give the " level of performance."

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"through which intelligence is manifested."

Another limitation is the time element. Tests for vocabulary require less time than do comprehensions tests. Long reading passages usually have only four to five test items and are to be read in a short time. That is too small a number and to short a time "for high reliability". (Traxler, 1970)

The test selector should always keep in mind that the test that is selected should relate to the objectives of the school system.

A SELECTION OF STANDARDIZED READING TESTS

Norm-Referenced*

California Achievement Tests:Reading,1970 Edition, grades 4-12, McGraw-Hill Publishers.

Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests, 1972, grades 1-9, Houghton-Mifflin Company.

Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests:Survey F, 1972, grades 10-12, Houghton Mifflin Company.

Iowa Silent Reading Tests, 1973 Edition, grades 6-12, Psychological Corporation.

Metropolitan Achievement Tests: Reading 1973 Edition, grades 2-9, Psychological Corporation.

Stanford Achievement Test:Reading Tests, 1973 Edition, grades 1-9, Psychological Corporation.

Criterion-Referenced**

Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills: Reading, Expanded Edition 1976, kindergarden-12, McGraw-Hill Publishers.

Georgia's Criterion-Referenced Reading Test, 1975, grades 4-8, Georgia State Department of Education.

Primary Reading Criterion-Referenced Screening Test, 1975, grades 1-2, Brown Education Center, Louisville, Kentucky.

*These were the most highly rated, most often recommended norm-referenced tests.

**There were very few criterion-referenced tests listed. It is the assumption of the writer that it is because most states or systems write their own criterion-referenced test such as the Georgia test listed above and the Louisiana Minimum Skills tests in Reading and Math.

(Buros, 1978)

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VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

The importance of vocabulary is demonstrated daily both in and out of school. In every type of work from the highest to the lowest, according to tests given to nearly a half million individuals, from widely varied walks of life, knowledge of the exact meanings of many words correlates with success more often than any other measurable factor-the higher the rank of the worker, the broader is his knowledge of words. In school too, because of the verbal nature of most classroom activities, knowledge of words and ability to use language are essential to success and the achieving pupils invariably possess the most adequate vocabularies.

The foundations of vocabulary development are laid in the home during the pre-school years. The school builds upon these foundations and should cultivate in each pupil an interest in vocabulary development that will continue throughout his life, since this learning activity does not cease with the completion of formal education. (Donahue, 1975).

Regardless of the estimates of the size of children's vocabularies when they enter school, the teacher is responsible for teaching children to recognize and identify words, to pronounce words, to analyze and categorize words, to read words and finally, to put words together into phrases, sentences and paragraphs in written language. (Corcoran, 1970).

Most educators agree that vocabulary building must be a consciously developed program-it can not be left to chance. A teacher must help a pupil gain a wide background of experience and associate these experiences

and visual associations that he has gained to enrich his experiences and increase his vocabulary further. (Hester, 1964).

As the child begins to acquire a vocabulary, the words he learns will have meaning for him if they are linked with something he has actually experienced through his senses. Vocabulary development is generally understood to be the result of the combined study of concepts and of symbols; and only experience can provide the mind with the concepts for which the spoken or visual symbols must be located as needs arise. A child can not and does not acquire a large vocabulary by accumulating a stock of words as symbols for definitions apart from concepts.

There are four general and related vocabularies with which the elementary school teacher must deal. Two of them-the listening and reading vocabularies-emphasize understanding, while the remaining ones-the speaking and writing vocabularies-refer to use.

These four interrelated and frequently confused vocabularies have their origins in the early months of an infant's life and develop constinuously, although at different rates, into adulthood. It has been assumed that the listening vocabulary precedes and is more extensive than the speaking vocabulary although no studies have as yet been found to support this conclusion.

The listening or hearing vocabulary refers to the words a person understands when he hears them. When most children enter first grade, their listening vocabulary is relatively large and surpasses their other vocabularies. It remains substantially larger than their visual one until the pupil reaches the age of ten. After that, the size of the difference decreases rapidly although the auditory vocabulary continues to remain the larger of the two. (The size of the average adult listening vocabulary is unknown but probably numbers in the hundreds of thousands of words.)

It is important for the teacher to realize that the listening child may understand one meaning of a word or one shade of a meaning and yet be wholly ignorant of the other denotations. It is also vital that the primary teacher recognizes that the size of a child's listening vocabulary does not ordinarily affect his reading success until the third grade.

The speaking vocabulary includes the words a person uses in expressing himself orally. It usually begins when a child reaches the age of 12 to 18 months and is of first importance in the elementary school, because it forms the basis for the development of the reading and writing vocabularies. Although the child needs a sizable speaking vocabulary before he starts to learn to read, by the time he reaches the fourth or fifth grade, his reading vocabulary overtakes and passes his speaking vocabulary. Since the speaking vocabulary is subdivided into the formal category (reserved for use with strangers or in audience situations) and the informal category (covering everyday living and family situations), the child must learn under the guidance of his teacher to use the vocabulary that is most appropriate for the occasion.

The reading vocabulary embraces the words that a person understands when he sees them in print or in writing. As a child enters school, his reading vocabulary is probably non-existent or, at best, consists of only a few words because it requires both an ability to identify the words as well as knowledge of its meaning. The reading vocabulary is built on listening and speaking vocabularies with word identification added. It can never form the basis of an ideal spelling list because the average individual encounters in reading many words that he is unlikely to use in speech or in writing.

Reported to lag perpetually behind the other three vocabularies is the writing vocabulary which is chronologically acquired last and only includes the words a person uses or can use in written composition. It

depends upon sufficient familiarity with words used in the speaking vocabulary. Again, like the speaking vocabulary, the writing vocabulary includes both formal words (employed in business correspondence or more scholarly writing) and informal words (used in personal correspondence and diaries). When children enter school, their writing vocabulary is probably non-existent or, at best, consists of only a few words because it is essential that the writer be able to spell and produce the words legibly.

Adequate instructions in any one area of vocabulary tends to result in improvement in all four areas. Writing and speaking vocabularies overlap more than 90% percent and speaking and reading vocabularies are also closely related. All four vocabularies are based on the accuracy and richness of a person's concepts. Included in each area are four different types of words as classified by Dale: (1) Core or general vocabulary of 2500-5000 words used most often; (2) Specialized vocabulary relevant to vocations, avocations, or technical interests; (3) Proper nouns and names of advertised products; and (4) Flagging and joining words which add, subtract or qualify other words around them. (Donahue, 1975).

There are several factors which greatly affect vocabulary development in children. A factor in determining the character and amount of a child's vocabulary is the type of environment in which he lives. If poverty and ignorance prevail and his experiences are limited, his fund of words will be relatively low-grade and scanty. Socio-economic conditions also strongly affect a child's vocabulary.

What the child gains from his environment is conditioned by his capacity to learn. The richest of experiences in an excellent environment cannot guarantee a wide vocabulary for the child who is unobservant and slow to learn.

Another contributory factor in vocabulary development is the interest the child has developed. A child tends to notice the objects and activities that interest him and to ignore even the obvious when it has little or no appeal for him.

The fourth factor consists of the instruction and guidance the child receives in the use of words. His parents may take pain to explain unfamilar processes and articles and to encourage him to learn the related vocabulary. They may frequently converse with him and, if he shows some misconceptions or confusion, they are careful to straighten him out. Similarly, the teacher may deliberately work to widen and deeper meanings in what the child observes and discusses. Such guidance brings refinement in the use of words; the lack of it may cause gaps and inoccurancies in a child's vocabulary. (Dawson and Zollinger, 1957).

In summary, the emphasis on vocabulary building will be in direct relationship to the child's need for words to complete his perceptions of himself, his experience, and his environment. When the experience is direct and tangible, the child will need descriptive, expressive and direct language. As experiences become increasingly abstract and symbolic, the child needs symbols and signs to express his indirect knowledge of the world. He needs to know the differences between the two kinds of experiences as well as the differences in language usage. Teachers, then, will not use gimmicks for vocabulary development, but a great variety of experiences for growth in ideas and expressions. (Corcoran, 1970).

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SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

Vocabulary development requires constant attention. Time should be taken each day for discussion of words used or needed for the communication of ideas. It is the purpose of this paper to provide exercises and suggestions that help to extend vocabulary.

My Word Folder. The purpose is to help the child to organize and keep a record of words he does and doesn't know. Cut a piece of posterboard 22 inches x 10 inches. Fold the bottom up three inches to make a pocket and fold the board in half. Use colored tape to tape the pockets on both sides and all the way around to add color. The child may place a picture on front. Let the child write words that he wishes to learn on cards and keep them in his folder. When he can pronounce, spell, and define the word, he may place it in the pocket on the left side.

Football is My Game The purpose is to improve vocabulary phrases by capitalizing on the interest of the student. Draw and cut out a football 12 inches long. Attach a pocket cut in the same shape. Insert phrase cards that the student has prepared. "Field goal," "off sides," and "first down" may be read and explained or discussed by students. The teacher may wish to have the student use the phrase in a complete sentence.

Circus Words The purpose is to classify words and phrases. Draw and cut out an outline of a circus tent. Attach a pocket labeled "Circus Words" before drawing lines and adding fringes. Insert words about the circus on small cards. Make a flag and attach it to the top of the tent. Ask students to take a word from the pocket, pronounce it, and use it in a sentence.

Signs You Should Know The purpose is to aid in the ability to read important signs. Cut out a large octagon-shaped stop sign from red showboard. Cut three sides of another octagon the same size and attach it to the bottom half of the whole stop sign to form a pocket. Use white cloth tape to hold

the pocket in place. Use the same tape to complete the border around the sign. Write all the words and phrases in capital letters on cards. Insert these words and phrases in the pocket. Examples: YIELD RIGHT-OF-WAY, STOP, DANGER, DYNAMITE, EXIT. Ask a student to read the signs, tell where he might see the signs, and explain what each one means.
(The above activities were taken from Reading Games and Activities, Mary E. Dorsey, 1972.)

Play Ball! There are various baseball-related activities to expand vocabularies. One is to look for words with multiple meanings in the reading selections. Examples: fans, play, base, game, and pitcher. Vocabulary games include variations of bingo using baseball vocabulary and Pronoun Pinch-Hitter (Developmental Learning Materials) in which students make pronouns pinch hit for nouns. Baseball-word flash cards can be devised to build up speed in word recognition, as well as a baseball player tachistoscope using a picture pasted to cardboard of a player at bat. Next to the bat is a slit for a sliding card containing such words as single, strike, double, foul, pop, and fly. Create a "Batter Up" crossword puzzle using only baseball lingo.
(The above activities were taken from Teacher, "RBIs: Reading/Baseball Ideas," Naomi K. Skriloff, April, 1980.)

Word Spy Write this message on the chalkboard and place a blank beside each word. The children read and copy the activity. On each blank, they write a letter from the word to spell the name of something rain may make (answer: puddle).

April _____
sun _____
drying _____
raindrops _____
laughing _____
silently _____

Words of Words List the following words on the chalkboard: light, man, fish, ball, side, body, and self. Challenge students to form for each word two or more compound words that end with the given word: moonlight, sunlight.

(The above activities were taken from Early Years, page 80, April, 1980.)

Add-On The teacher asks each pupil to write at his seat a one-letter word starting with A, a two-letter word starting with B, a three-letter word starting with C, etc. The winner is the pupil who compiles the longest list.

String of Words The teacher writes a word on the blackboard (chair). Each child writes a word starting with the last letter of the word on the board (run, race, rat, etc.). Within a time limit, each child must compile a list on his paper starting each word with the last letter of the preceding word. The pupil with the longest list of words correctly written is winner.

Following are simple activities to help children acquire vocabulary skills.

1. Illustrating homographs (multiple meanings of words).
2. Labeling familiar objects and supplies around the classroom.
3. Writing captions for pictures illustrating new concepts.
4. Writing, discussing and rewriting proverbs, which may later be posted.
5. Participating in choral reading.
6. Writing legends on maps.
7. Listing things needed to bake a cake, build a house, go camping, etc.
8. Maintaining lists of Easter words, Halloween words, all seasonal words.
9. Planning shadow play.
10. Looking up assigned word in 15 minutes and then telling how it came into existence.

(The above activities were taken from The Child and the English Language Arts, Mildred R. Donoghue, 1971.)

Concept-Vocabulary Development Charts Directions for the student: Examine each of the words below. Then regroup them under the headings in the following columns. Regroup the words according to the degree to which you think the words can be associated or might be used to describe the same object or conditions as those words at the top of each column.

governed	moor	treaty	arbitration
negotiate	mountainous	ruled	lowlands
represented	elected	settle	Senate
highlands	terrain	disputed	peninsula
precipitation	humidity	Congress	island

Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
rainfall	coastline	voted	armistice

Systematic Studying-Testing of Frequently Occurring Vocabulary-Concepts

Vocabulary and concept development is not a one-shot teaching-testing situation in the various subject areas. A simple chart placed in a folder can be used to help in concept-vocabulary development. The chart has a listing of words to be studied in a phase of study such as a unit. Space should be left to add to the list. To the right of each word, columns are made and coded to indicate mastery following appropriate teaching-testing. The codes at the top of each column, explained at the bottom of the list, are just some of the teaching-testing areas that can be included.

Example: Learning Some Basic Words

_____
(Name of Student)

	RS	UOC	KM	UWC
continent				
strait				
ocean current				
tundra				
glacier				
volcano				

RS - Recognizes Word by Sight
UOC - Uses in Oral Context
KM - Knows Meaning of the Word
UWC - Uses in Written Context

(The above charts were taken from a handout by C. Glennon Rowell, Florida State University.)

WORD RECOGNITION

Word recognition, the same as any other term in the field of reading can become ambiguous when one examines it in the many different pieces of literature of a reading program. For the purpose of this section, word recognition refers to the child's ability to recognize a word and its meaning in context.

Word recognition can also be defined as the identification of a word by means of a context clue or skill in analysis of the word form. Word recognition involves a number of techniques: the use of sight words, the use of phonetis analysis, the use of context, and the use of the dictionary. Word recognition skills are those methods or techniques used by readers to identify, to pronounce, or to recall words. Before the reader can attack meaning to a word, he must be able to identify it.

Word recognition is the process of producing the sounds represented by the printed symbols and putting them together into words. Sometimes it is called "identification," "decoding," or "breaking the code." However word recognition is only the initial step if one considers reading to be the process of getting meaning and understanding from printed symbols. In completing the reading act the individual reacts to the material and integrates what he has read with what he already knows. In this way, his idea and attitudes change and his intellectual growth continues.

To teach word recognition, the teacher should know some principles of teaching word recognition, have an idea of a sequence of it, and learn some basic techniques for teaching it. Here are some practical

suggestions to use in the teaching of word recogniton (Tinker and McCullough, 1976).

(1). Proceed from the familiar to the unfamiliar a step at a time.

(2). From dependence on the teacher to independence.

(3). Teach the individual a variety of ways of recognizing words.

(4). Introduce new words and new techniques gradually and with adequate repetition so that the learner has a growing feeling of mastery.

(5). Use an interesting way of having individuals practice recognizing new words (Dolch 220 Words).

(6). If the individual needs drills on recognition of words, try to provide it in a variety of ways.

(7). A student's knowledge of progress is extremely important. Two techniques that can be utilized for concretely showing progress are, (a) making a file of new words and (b) constructing a cummulative chart.

(8). In each lesson, try to maximize the probability of success.

(9). From the very beginning, consult with others who teach the student.

(10). For developmental or corrective reading instruction, it is necessary to follow a sequence for teaching word recognition.

In the construction of a reading program, the end should be that the child will be able to analyze a word frequently enough so that the word eventually become a sight word (Hays, 1974).

(A developmental sequence of word recognition using the approximate grade level could be used to indicate the type of techniques).

Approximate Grade Level:

1	Sight words
1-2	Initial consonants
	Final consonants
	Consonants digraphs (ch, th, wh, sh)
1-2	Consonant blends (fr, sl, cl, pl---and those needed)
	Advanced consonant digraphs (qu,nk, ed, ing)
	Silent consonants
	Contractions
	Simple structure of sentences and punctuation markers for speech patterns, such as use of commas, periods, question marks

Approximate Grade Level:

2-3	Vowels (long and short sounds)
	Simple suffix (farmer)
	Rhyming endings
	More complex sentence structure
3	Punctuation markers
4	Punctuation markers
	prefixes, suffixes, roots
5	Accent and dictionary words
	More complex sentence structure
6	Word as part of speech
	Sentence structure
	Sentence with adjective words
	Using the dictionary

The types of word recognition techniques can be grouped into three somewhat-overlapping categories: predominantly visual clues, emphasis on meaning and mainly analytical procedures. These types of word recognition techniques will be described (C. M. McCullough, 1978):

Predominantly Visual Clues;

(1). Picture aids. Printed words are often learned by their association with pictures. For identifying nouns, pictures can readily be found in magazines.

(2). Sight words or "instant" recognition words. Through recognition of the same words in a variety of situations, individuals build up a sight-word vocabulary. Two procedures can be used for developing sight words: (a) flash cards and (b) easy reading.

Emphasis on Meaning:

(1). Context clues. This technique consists of using a sentence to help the individual infer the meaning of the unknown word and then to think of the word itself.

(a) Definition. The unknown word is defined.

(b) Experience. The individual can infer the word from his experience.

(c) Contrast. The unknown word is opposite in meaning to known word or phrases.

(d) Familiar expression. The known word is part of an idiom or everyday expression.

(e) Summary. The unknown word sums up the ideas in the preceding sentences.

(f) Reflection of a mood or situation.

(2). Compound words. Words which represent the combination of two words may be recognized when separated, and the meaning of the two words gives the meaning of the combined word (McMullough, 1978).

Analytical Techniques:

(Structural and phonetic analysis are the two major types of analytical techniques).

(1). Includes in structural analysis are the following:

(a) Compound and hyphenated words (by product).

(b) Root words and their variants which include the various endings to indicate tense and number, such as "rush" and "rushed," "boy" and "boys."

(c) Contractions such as "didn't."

(d) Syllabication, the parts of a word which may or may not represent meaning components, such as prefixes or suffixes, but do represent boundaries between sequences of sounds in a word.

To teach syllabication, do the following:

(a) Pupil and teacher should first pronounce the word carefully;

(b) Identify the number of heard vowel sounds; and

(c) Group about five words together that fit a principle of syllabication.

Phonics

"Sounding out" words or the application of phonetic principles to the recognition of new words is useful for about 80 to 85 percent of word. (Use only when applicable). (Clymer, 1973).

Cautions in Teaching Word Recognition:

1. Proceed only as rapidly as the student can be cumulatively successful.
2. Plan each lesson carefully. A typical lesson might include the following.
   (a) Review words.
   (b) Introduce new words (print word in sentence) and discuss them to get pronounciation, ways of recognizing word, word meaning, and similarity to previous words and experiences associated with the word.
   (c) Have the student recognize new words in a variety of sentences.
   (d) Make a card (for card file) for each new word.
   (e) Make an experience chart using the new words or read a story containing the new words.
   (f) Try to arouse curiosity to reading the story by having the student formulate questions about the story from knowing its title or from looking at the illustrations.
   (g) Have students reread story into a tape recorder and then listen to the playback. Let him evaluate his own work.
   (h) Teach a new word-recognition skill and have the student practice the skill in an interesting way.
3. Try to work with the student one-to-one at least twice a week.
4. As much as possible, plan and evaluate with your student.

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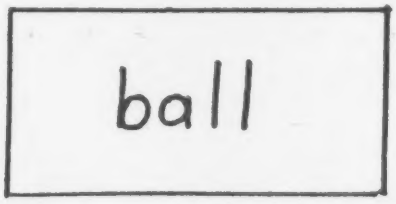
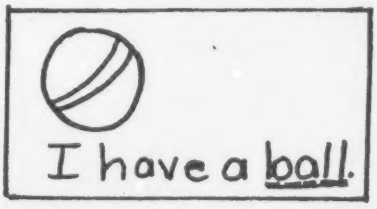
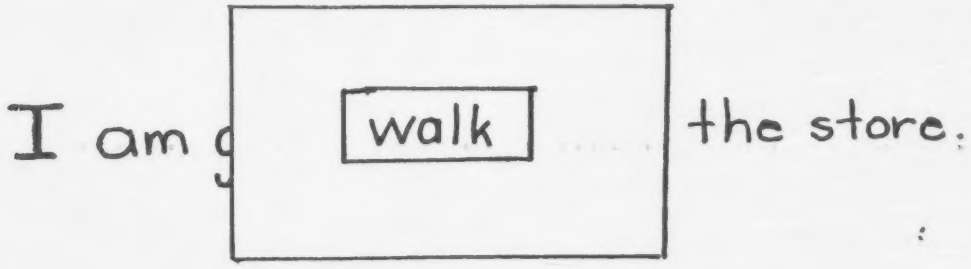
SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR WORD RECOGNITION

Print sight word that is to be stressed with a magic marker on the front of the card. Then print a sentence containing the sight word on the back of the card. If possible, also draw a simple representation of the sight word on the back of the card.





You can make a window card 3" X 5" index card. Cut an opening in the middle of the card. (See below) This opening should be large enough to expose a sight word on the material on which it is going to be used.

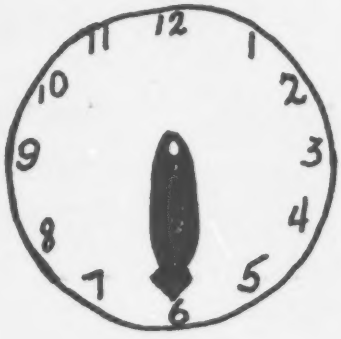


To construct Sight Word Bingo, you can use the sight words that are found in the Dolch Sight Word List or use sight words taken from basal readers at the appropriate grade level. When words have been selected, make a number of word cards about 8 inches square from poster paper. Divide each word card into 25 squares and print a different sight word with a marking pen in each square. Then make a list of the sight words that you are using for yourself, and give each student some type of markers such as pieces of paper, coke tops, or dry beans.

Play this like traditional bingo. You read a sight word, student places the marker. First one to get five places in a row wins! Then have student to pronounce each word covered by the marker.

Another idea is to construct a clock on poster paper and list the words the students need to master and number them 1-12. Two students play this game. One student spins the wheel and reads the sight word. If he gets it correctly, he gets a point and another turn. If he misses, it is the other student's turn. The student who gets the most points in 20 minutes wins the game.

Time to Learn "W" Words



1. Where
2. Want
3. What
4. Were
5. Who
6. Which
7. When
8. With
9. Well
10. Went
11. Why
12. Walk

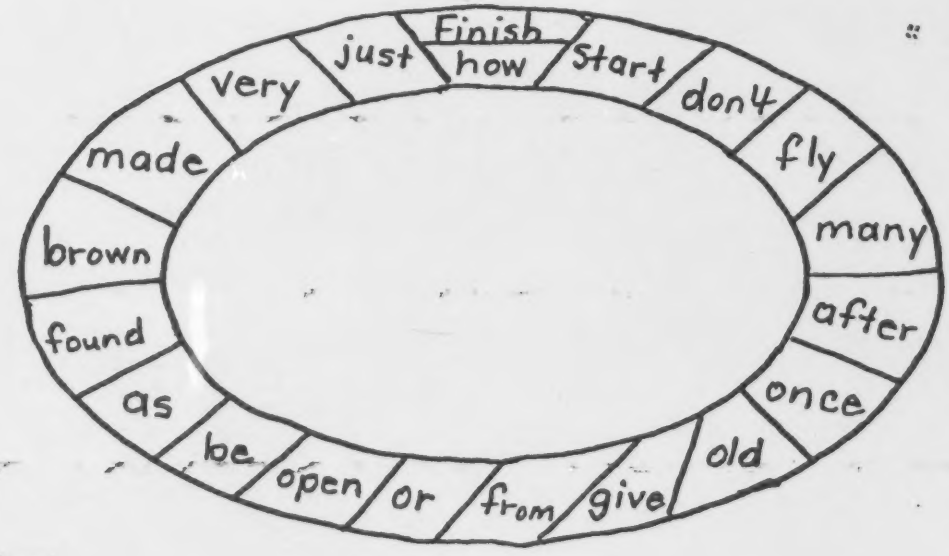
There are several ways to help a child to discriminate between words:

1. Tom (wrote) to me because he had said that he would (write) to me.
   wrote/write
2. My sister cooked a (delicious, delicate) dinner for Thanksgiving.
3. Conscience conscience conscience (conscious) conscience

4.

good	buy
from	from
cold	good
buy	cold

For the next game, print sight words on an oval track similar to the illustration below. Then make two sets of individual word cards for the sight words. Each student needs a toy automobile. Each student places his car on START. He places his sight words face up. He then reads his top card. If it is the same word as the word in the first space of the track, he moves his car to the next space. If it is not the same word, he cannot move. He places his card on the bottom of the deck and the other student has a turn. The winner is the first student who goes around the track to the finish line. Each pile of cards should be shuffled before the game.



Taken From:

Miller, Wilma H., Reading Correction Kit, New York. The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1975.

IRA EDWARD AARON

Ira Aaron was born in Millen, Georgia on July 9, 1919. He is the son of Thomas William and Sally (Lane) Aaron. Mr. Aaron's home address is 7 South Stratford Drive, Athens, Georgia, 30601.

Ira Aaron earned his A.B. in Journalism (1941) and his M.Ed. (1947) at the University of Georgia. He received his Ph.D. from the University of Minnesota in 1954.

Mr. Aaron was employed by the Jenkins County School Board in Georgia as a teacher from 1938 to 1942. He served in the United States Air Force from 1942 to 1946. Upon completion of his Air Force career, he returned to Millen, Georgia to serve as the principal of Norwood Jr. High School (1946-1948). In 1948 Mr. Aaron became a member of the staff of the University of Georgia at Athens. He has headed the Reading Department at the University of Georgia since 1957.

Mr. Aaron is interested in research in learning and in the teaching of reading and spelling skills. He has contributed many articles and pamphlets to the field of reading. He authored (along with Robinson and others) the Scott, Foresman reading and spelling series.

Roach Van Allen

Dr. Roach Van Allen, professor of Elementary Education at the University of Arizona, received his B. A. from West Texas State University; he received his M. A. and Ed. D. from the University of Texas. His career includes elementary teacher in Canyon Texas Public Schools; director of elementary teacher education, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas; Public Schools director of curriculum, Harlingen, Texas; and director of curriculum coordination, San Diego County (California). He is author of approximately 100 articles published in journals and magazines. Some of his writings include Preparing Your Child for School, Beginning Writing Experiences, Independent Activities for Creative Learning, Language Experiences in the Kindergarten, Learning to Read through Experience, Attitudes and the Art of Teaching Reading, Language Experiences in Reading, Levels I, II and III, Encyclopedia Britannica Press, Language Experiences in Early Childhood. He is author of scripts for "Magic Moments", a series of twenty films and contributor to reading conference yearbooks, including Teaching Young Children to Read. In addition, Dr. Allen is widely known as a consultant and speaker, dealing especially with a language experience approach.

MAY HILL ARBUTHNOT

May Hill Arbuthnot was an outstanding author of children's books. Some of her well-known books include Children and Books, Children's Books Too Good to Miss, and Arbuthnot Anthology. She wrote several books that have become known as the "time" books. Time for Poetry, Time for Fairy Tales Old and New, and Time for True Tales and Almost True-just to name a few.

This talented author was born August 17, 1884 in Mason City, Iowa. She received he PH.B. from the University of Chicago, and her M.A. from Columbia University. After receiving her degrees, she taught at Cleveland Kindergarten-Primary Training School. Mrs. Arbuthnot was on the staff of Western Reserve University (now Case Western University). She was a fulltime writer and lecturer, staying active until her death in October of 1969.

AWARDS AND HONORS:

Constance Lindsey Skinner Medal

National Association of Book Women of America 1960
for distinguished contribution to the field of writing.

Regina Medal---Catholic Library Association 1964
for distinguished contribution to children's literature

MARY ANN BAIRD

Miss Mary Ann Baird, Supervisor of Reading in the Mississippi State Department of Education - Division of Instruction, received her Master's degree and did post-graduate work at the University of Southern Mississippi. Miss Baird has worked as an Associate Professor at Northeast Louisiana University and at the University of Southern Mississippi, as well as doing extension work for the University of Southern Mississippi, Jackson State College, Mississippi State, and Ole Miss.

Miss Baird served three years as a board member of the International Reading Association which represents 65,000 people and which elects only three such members. Other honors include Past-President of the National Association of English and Reading Supervisors which represents all fifty states; Editorial Advisory Board of Instructor; and writer for Scholastic - Sprint series. Miss Baird, herself, organized the State Junior and Senior College Reading Associations and the State Reading Teachers and Supervisors Association in Mississippi.

Lectures and Consultant work in 39 states have taken her throughout the United States and to Buenos Aires, where she conducted a seminar of Pre-service and In-service Training for Teachers at the World Congress. Topics of talks include Reading is Living, Parental Involvement in the Reading Program, Right to Read, and Children's Literature.

WALTER BURKE BARBE

PERSONAL: Born October 30, 1926, in Miami Florida; son of Victor Elza and Edith (Burris) Barbe; married Marilyn Wood (a high school guidance counselor), February 7, 1967; children: Frederick W. Barbe. EDUCATION: Northwestern University, B.S., 1949, M.A., 1950, Ph.D., 1953. POLITICS: Democrat. RELIGION: Presbyterian. HOME: R. D. 1, Narrowsburg, New York 12764. OFFICE: Highlights For Children, 803 Church Street, Honesdale, Pennsylvania. MILITARY SERVICE: United States Army, 1944-1946.

CAREER: Baylor University, Waco, Texas, instructor in psychology, 1950; Kent State University, Kent Ohio, assistant professor of elementary education and director of reading clinic, 1950-1952; University of Chattanooga, Chattanooga, Tennessee, professor of education and director of Junior League Reading Center, 1953-1960; Kent State University, professor of education and head of special education department, 1960-1964; Highlights for Children, Honesdale, Pennsylvania, editor, 1964--. Adjunct professor, University of Pittsburg, 1964, Ohio State University, 1973--. Editor, Zaner-Bloser, Incorporation.

MEMBER: Council for Exceptional Children, American Psychological Association (fellow), National Association for Gifted Children (president, 1958-1960), National Education Association,

The Association for the Gifted (president, 1967), International Reading Association, Council of State Directors of Programs for Gifted, Phi Delta, Kappa Delta Pi, Psi Chi, Lookout Mountain Fairyland Club, Honesdale Golf Club, Rotary. Awards, honors: Psi Chi Research Award, 1953.

WRITINGS: Directory of Reading Clinics, University of Chattanooga Press, 1955; (with Dorothy Hinman) We Build Our Words, Bookman Associates, 1957; (editor with others) Teen-Age Tales, Heath, 1957; (editor with Thomas M. Stephens) Educating Tommorrow's Leaders, Ohio State Department of Education, 1961; Educator's Guide to Personalized Reading Instruction, Prentice-Hall, 1961; The Exceptional Child, Center for Applied Research in Education, 1963; (editor) Teaching Reading: Selected Materials, Oxford University Press, 1965; (editor) Psychology and Education of the Gifted: Selected Readings, Appleton, 1965; (compiler) Creative Writing Activities, Highlights for Children, 1965; (editor with Edward C. Frierson) Educating Children With Learning Disabilities: Selected Readings, Appleton, 1967; (editor) Annette Wynne and others, Children Around the World, Highlights for Children, 1968; (editor) Searchlights on Literature (basic reading program series), Harper, 1969; (editor) Sports Handbook, Highlights for Children, 1970. Contributor of more than

one hundred articles to educational and psychological journals.

WORK IN PROGRESS: A series, Creative Growth With Handwriting.

EMMETT ALBERT BETTS

Dr. Betts is certainly a giant in the fields of education and reading. He has dedicated most of his life in the investigation of student reading levels and needs.

He was born in 1903 in Elkhart, Iowa, received his B.S. from Des Moines University, and the M.S. and Ph.D. from the University of Iowa.

His professional experiences include: a school vocational director, an elementary principal, director of teacher education and served in the reading clinic at the State Teacher's College is Oswego, New York. He was a research professor of education and director of the reading clinic at Pennsylvania State College. At Temple University in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, he was professor of psychology and director of the reading clinic. He opened the Betts Reading Clinic in Haverford, Pennsylvania in 1954. He is presently a research professor of education and lecturer in psychology at the University of Miami in Coral Gables, Florida.

He has participated in workshops in vision and reading in over forty colleges and universities as well as serving as a consultant for public schools in the United States.

Betts has written several books with Foundations of Reading Instruction, in 1946, being the classic. His newest is How to Teach Reading, published in 1963.

He has co-authored many textbooks and materials. He has also written numerous articles for periodicals. He has

been active in many organizations while assuming leadership roles.

He was founder of the International Reading Association. His use of Informal Reading Inventories has been accepted by educators. He pioneered visual screening procedures and has received many honors and awards for merit in education and reading.

BIOGRAPHY OF GUY L. BOND

Guy L. Bond (1904-) was born in Cooperville, Washington. He attended Western Washington State College and the University of Alabama and Columbia. He is married to Fredericka Hoffa Bond. They have two daughters. He was Professor of Education, State College, Fredonia, New York, from 1936-37. He served in the United States Navy from 1942-1945. He was Professor of Education, the University of Minnesota in 1937. He was Visting Lecturer at Columbia University from 1940-1961.

Guy Bond's Publications included: Teaching the Child to Read; Developmental Reading in High School (Macmillian); The Diagnosis and Treatment of Learning Difficulties (Appleton-Century-Crofts); Child Growth in Reading (Lyons and Carnahan); Reading Difficulties; Their Diagnosis and Correction (Appleton-Century-Crofts); Living Literature Series (Macmillan); Developmental Reading Series; (Lyons and Carnaham).

Mr. Bond was a contributor to the National Society for the Study of Education Year-Book.

THEODORE WILLIAM CLYMER
(1927-)

Theodore Clymer was born April 2, 1927, in St. Paul, Minnesota; son of Theodore Frederick (a businessman) and Annette (Newton) Clymer: married Lois Brandt, December 30, 1947; children: Lorna and Todd. He was educated at Winconsin State College, River Falls, B. S. 1951, Ph. D. 1952. Politics: Independent Republican. Religion: Unitarian Universalist. Home: 3428 Skycroft Dr., Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455. Office: 104 Burton Hall, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455.

His career includes, assistant professor, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, 1952-1957, associate professor, 1957-1959, professor of elementary education and educational psychology, 1959-. Visiting summer professor at State University of Utah, 1953, 1958, and University of California, Berkeley, 1960. Consultant to Cooperative Research Branch, United States Office of Education, 1962-1966. Military Service: United States Navy, 1945-1946. Member: International Reading Association (honorary life member; chairman, studies and research committee, 1958-1962; board, 1961-1963; president, 1964-1965), National Conference on Research in English (vice-president, 1963-1964; president, 1964-1965), National Council of Teachers of English, National Council on Measurement in Education, American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association, Minnesota Reading Association (honorary life member). Awards, honors: Distinguished Alumnus Awards, Winconsin State University.

Some of his writings are (With Guy L. Bond and others) "Developmental Reading Test and Silent Reading Diagnostic Tests," Lyons and Carnahan, 1955; (With G. L. Bond and others) "Developmental Reading Series," grades 7-8, Lyons and Carnahan, 1962; (With Austin, Bond and others) "Developmental Science Series," grades 1-6, Lyons and Carnahan, 1963; (With David H. Russell and others) "Ginn 100 Reading Series," grades 3-6, Ginn, 1966. Co-author of other reading materials and aids. Editor, Reading Teacher, 1958-1966, editor of research issues, Reading Research Quarterly and member of editorial advisory board, 1962-; member of editorial board, American Educational Publication, 1964-.

Kinsman, Clare D. ed. Contemporary Authors. Vols. 17-20. Detroit: Gale Research Company, 1976.

S. ALAN COHEN

Educator S. Alan Cohen was born April 22, 1933 in Boston, Massachusetts. The son of Jewish parents, Samuel and Bessie Cohen, he married the former Rita Palan in 1952 and is the father of four children. Cohen is a Democrat and resides in Fort Lee, New Jersey. His office address is 201 East 50th St., New York, New York 10002.

Receiving his B.S. from Suffolk University in 1953, Cohen earned his Ed.M. three years later at Harvard University. He did extensive graduate study at New School for Social Research and Rutgers University and later received his Ed.D. from Boston University in 1965.

Cohen began his educational career as an elementary teacher from 1956 to 1961. Serving in numerous capacities in the field of education and research, he was awarded the U.S. Office of Education research grant, 1966-67.

A writer of educational materials, Cohen wrote Teach Them All to Read: Theories, Methods, and Materials for Teaching the Disadvantaged in 1969. Contributions to educational journals include the following: An English Teacher's Reader (1962); Recreation and Socialization for the Brain Injured Child (1966); Schools in a Changing Society (1966). He also was a contributor to Reading in the Elementary School, Odyssey, and Teaching Reading to a Linguistically Different Child.

ROGER C. FARR

Roger Farr began his career in education as a junior and senior high school teacher of English. He later went on to earn his M. S. in 1965 and his Ed. D. in 1967 from State University of New York College. In 1967 he took a post as assistant professor at Indiana University. In 1970 he became an associate professor of education and director of the Reading Clinic at Indiana University.

Mr. Farr is a member of the International Reading Association and acted as president of the association in 1979-80. He is also a member of the National Council on Measurements in Education and the National Reading Conference.

His writings include Guide to Test and Measuring Instruments for Reading (1968), A Taxonomy of Evaluation Techniques for Reading Programs (1968), Test of Reading Readiness and Achievement: A Review and Evaluation (1969), Measurements and Evaluation of Reading (1970), and What Research Says to the Teacher of Reading: Reading in the High School (1970).

Mr. Farr has also acted as associate editor of Reading Research Quarterly and co-editor of Indiana Reading Quarterly.

WALTER HAROLD MACGINITIE

Walter Harold MacGinitie was born in Carmel, California, on August 14, 1928. He was married in 1950, and he and his wife have two children. They now reside in New York City, New York.

The degrees that MacGinitie has earned include: Bachelors, from the University of California in 1949; Masters, from Stanford University in 1950; and Doctorate Degree from Columbia University, in 1960.

MacGinitie has served as Instructor of Psychology at Teachers College at Columbia University from 1959-60, Assistant Professor of Psychology and Education from 1960-62, Associate Professor from 1962-70, and has served as Professor since 1970.

MacGinitie is a member of the American Psychology Association, American Educational Research Association, International Reading Association, and Sigma Xi.

MacGinitie has co-authored the following publications: Readings in the Psychological Foundations of Education, (McGraw, 1968), Verbal Behavior of the Deaf Child, (1969), and the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests, (Teachers College, Columbia University).

OLIVE STAFFORD NILES

Olive Stafford Viles was born in Bennington, Vermont July 12, 1909. She received an AB degree from Mount Holyoke College in 1930; an MA from Bryn Mawr College in 1931 and her Ed.D from Boston University in 1955.

Dr. Niles taught high school English in Bennington, Vermont in 1931-32 and she was assistant professor of English and Education at Teachers College, Connecticut from 1943 to 1948. She then taught, as assistant professor of education, at Boston University.

In 1956 to 1970 Dr. Niles was Director of Reading for the Springfield Public Schools. She was also Consultant in Reading for the Connecticut State Department of Education in 1970. She is a member of the NCTE and director of the Reading Association, 1970.

MAX RAFFERTY

Rafferty was born in New Orleans, La. on May 7, 1917. He received his B. A. and M. A. at the University of California, Los Angeles. In 1955 Rafferty received the Ed.D. from the University of Southern California.

Dr. Rafferty has served as both teacher and principal in elementary and high schools in California. From 1961 - 1963 he was superintendent of La Canada Unified School District, La Canada, California. He was state superintendent of public instruction in California from 1963 - 1971. He is presently Dean of Education at Troy State University.

Dr. Rafferty has served as a member of several professional organizations. Some of those are the American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association, California Association of School Administrators, California Teachers Association and Phi Delta Kappa.

Among Rafferty's publications are: About Our Schools, (Education Press, 1955); Suffer, Little Children, (Devin, 1962); What They Are Doing to Your Children, (New American Library, 1964); and Classroom Countdown, (Hawthorn, 1970).

HARRY W. SARTAIN

Sartain was born in Becker County, Minnesota on April 7, 1920. He received his B.S. degree at Bedmidji State College and the M.A. and Ph.D. degrees at the University of Minnesota.

After teaching elementary grades for several years, Sartain served in the U.S. Army for three years. He has served as an elementary supervisor and an instructor of college students. Presently, he is Professor of Education and Director of Falk School at the University of Pittsburg.

Dr. Sartain has served as a member and officer of several professional organizations. Some of those are International Reading Association, National Society for the Study of Education, Association of Supervision and Curriculum, and Phi Delta Kappa.

Among Sartain's most recent publications are Individualized Reading, I.R.A., an annotated bibliography and contributor-editor in Modular Preparation for Teaching Reading; A Professional Program for Preservice and Continuing Education. He has also written "The Research base for Individualized Reading Instruction," I. R.A. and "Organizational Patterns of Schools and Classrooms for Reading Instruction; Innovation and Change in Reading Instruction," National Society for the Study of Education.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF NICHOLAS J. SILVAROLI

Nicholas Joseph Silvaroli was born in Buffalo, New York on December 4, 1930, married in 1952, and is the father of three children. He received his B.S. Degree at the State University of New York in 1953 and his M.A. at the University of Buffalo in 1960. Mr. Silvaroli received his Ed.D. in Reading at Syracuse University in 1963.

Mr. Silvaroli taught in Williamsville, New York, from 1956 to 1960. He served as a teaching assistant in the Syracuse University Reading Center from 1960 to 1963. He became Assistant Professor at Arizona State University in 1963, Associate Professor in 1965, and Director of the Reading Center there in 1964, of which he is currently serving.

Mr. Silvaroli has served as an evaluationist for the U. S. Office of Education, a panelist for the Right to Read Conference in Washington, D.C., in 1970, and a Reading Consultant for the Pebble Hill Academy in DeWitt, New York.

Mr. Silvaroli is a member of the National Council for Research in Education, the International Reading Association, National Education Association, Phi Delta Kappa, Arizona State Reading Council, and the Arizona Education Association.

Among his publications are: Classroom Reading Inventory (1969) and the High Adventures Book III (Allyn and Bacon, 1969). He also co-authored a book entitled An Inventory of Visual Discriminatory Training for Beginning Teachers (J. Typographic Research, 1967).

GEORGE SPACHE

George Spache was born February 22, 1909. He received his education at Maxwell Training School for Teachers. He received his B.S. in Education, M.A. and Ph.D. at New York University. He is now at Reading Laboratory and Clinic, University of Florida.

Other positions he has held were teacher, school psychologist, instructor in department of educational psychology, professor of education and head of reading laboratory and clinic where he still is.

He has written several books. Good Books for Poor Readers, Good Reading for Poor Readers are the ones most well-known. Others are Resources in Teaching Reading, The Art of Efficient Reading, Handwriting Elements, Faster Reading for Business, Reading in the Elementary School, Go, and Reading Disabilities and Perception.

He has also contributed to Education in a Free World, The Reading Teacher's Reader, Partners in Education, Evaluation of Reading, the Positive Values in the American Educational System, Communicative Arts, Reading Abilities and Skills needed for Our Times, Reading the Secondary Schools, and about 100 articles in professional journals.

He developed the Binocular Reading Test, Keystone View Company, 1943; and the Diagnositic Reading Scales, California Test Bureau, 1963. He is the advisory editor for the Journal of Developmental Reading and the book review editor for the reading teacher.

JOSEPH M. WEPMAN

Joseph M. Wepman was born on Christmas Day in 1907 in Copemish, Michigan. He was the son of Benjamin (a businessman) and Jinnie Morris Wepman. He married Ruth Rolde on January 3, 1933.

He attended Western State Teachers College (now Western Michigan University) and received his A.B. in 1931; University of Wisconsin and received his Ph. M. in 1934; and University of Chicago to get his Ph. D. in educational psychology in 1948.

His career began as a clinical instructor in surgery and a lecturer in psychology in 1946 at the University of Chicago. He was promoted to Associate Professor in 1958. In 1961 he became a professor of surgery, psychology, and education. He became Chairman of the Department of Psychology in 1973 at the University of Chicago.

He was in the U. S. Army Air Forces where he served as a research psychologist (1943-44) and a Clinical Psychologist (1944-46). He has worked with American Board of Examiners in Professional Psychology, U.S. Veteran's Administration, National Institute of Mental Health, and St. Elizabeth's Hospital in Washington, D.C.

He is a member of Sigma Xi and Tau Kappa Alpha. He is a fellow member of American Psychological Association and the American Speech and Hearing Association.

He is well known for his Auditory Discrimination Test which was copyrighted in 1958. It measures only the ability to hear correctly the phonemes used in the English language.

He has recently retired to Palm Springs, California where he is still in perceptual development and aphasia. He feels "that children should not begin formal learning until they are 8 or 9 years of age."

ROBERT WILSON

Robert Mills Wilson was born March 20, 1929 in Pittsburg, Pennsylvania. He is the son of C.B. and Helen (Mills) Wilson. He married Barbara Stewart on August 11, 1951 and is the father of three children: Richard, James, and Sharon.

He received a B.S. degree in education at California State College, California, Pennsylvania in 1950. He then acquired his M.A. and Ed. D. from the University of Pittsburg in 1956 and 1960. He is currently employed in the College of Education by the University of Maryland.

Robert Wilson began his career as an elementary teacher in West Mifflin, Pennsylvania; and then acquired the following positions: Assistant Professor at Edinboro State College, Edinboro, Pennsylvania, 1960-63; Professor of Education and Director of Reading Clinic, University of Maryland, 1963-65; Assistant Professor of Education and Director of Reading Center, 1965—.

He is a member of the International Reading Association, National Education Association, National Council of Teachers of English, College Reading Association, Maryland State Education Association, Maryland Corrective Remedial Reading Association, and Phi Delta Kappa.

He is the author of Diagnostic and Remedial Reading, Programmed Word Attack for Teachers, Reading and the Elementary School Child, Learning Center, and has contributed to educational journals. He also served as editor for the Maryland State Newsletter in Reading and of the review section, Journal of the Reading Specialist, 1966-68.

PAUL WITTY

Paul Witty was born July 23, 1898, in Terre Haute, Indiana. He died February 11, 1976, in Chicago. Illinois.

He received his A.B. from Indiana State University, and his M.S. and Ph.D. from Columbia University. He served in the United States Army from 1942-1944.

Some of his major accomplishments are as follows: President of International Council for the Improvement of Reading Instruction in 1954; Professor of Educational Psychology 1925-1930 at Northwestern University at Evanston, Illinois; member of American Educational Research Association; school psychologist at Scarborough-on-Hudson in New York; member of American Association for Gifted Children.

He wrote Streamline Your Reading (SRA 1949), was editor of The Gifted Child (Heath 1951) and How to Become a Better Reader (SRA 1953 with Anne Coomer).

Besides writing, he was a lecturer and consultant with Western Publishing Company and D.C. Heath and Company.

As author and educator, Paul Witty pioneered the application of psychological principles to education. His works focused specifically upon gifted children and served to do away with the ideas that a gifted child is unhealthy and generally asocial.

Contemporary Authors, Gale Research Company, Vol. 73-76, pp. 648-649

New York Times, Feb. 1976.

INFORMATIONAL SOURCES FOR THE READING TEACHER

PERIODICALS

1. Early Years. Circulation Service Center, P.O. Box 1069, Skokie, Ill., 60637.

2. Education. 1402 West Capitol Drive, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

3. Educational Leadership. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Suite 1100, 1701 D.Street, N.W., Washington, S.C. 20006.

4. The Elementary School Journal. University of Chicago Press, 5801 Ellis Avenue, Chicago, Ill., 60637.

5. Exceptional Children. Council for Exceptional Children, 1920 Association Drive Reston, Va., 22091.

6. Instructor. P.O. Box 6099, Duluth, Minn., 55806.

7. Journal of Learning Disabilities. 101 East Ontario, Chicago, Ill. 60611.

8. Journal of Reading. International Reading Association, 800 Barksdale Road, Newark, Delaware 19711.

9. Learning. Education Today, Inc., 530 University Avenue, Palo Alto, California 94301.

10. Reading Research Quarterly. International Reading Association, 800 Barksdale Road, Newark, Delaware 19711.

11. The Reading Teacher. International Reading Association, 800 Barksdale Road, Newark, Delaware 19711.

12. Teacher. Teacher Subscription Service, 262 Mason Street, Greenwich, Conn. 06830.

13. Today's Education. 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington,D.C. 20036.

BOOKS

1. Arbuthnot, May Hill. Children and Books. 5th ed. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman, 1967.

2. Arbuthnot, May Hill. Children's Reading in the Home. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman, 1968.

3. Association for Childhood Education International. Some Approaches to Reading. Washington, D.D.: the Association, 1969.

4. Barbe, Walter B. Educator's Guide to Personalized Reading Instruction. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1961.

5. Barbe, Walter B. Teaching Reading: Selected Materials. New York: Oxford University Press, 1965.

6. Betts, Emmett. How to Teach Reading. New York: Oxford University Press, 1969.

7. Bond, Guy Loraine and Miles Tinker. Reading Difficulties, Their Diagnosis and Correction. 4th ed. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1973.

8. Bond, Guy Loraine. Teaching the Child to Read. 4th ed. New York: Macmillan, 1966.

9. Buros, Oscar Krisen. Mental Measurements Yearbook. Highland Park, Yew York: Gryphon Press, 1974.

10. Cheyney, Arnold B. Teaching Reading Skills Through the Newspaper. Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, 1971.

11. Copperman, Paul. Literacy Hoax. Chicago, Ill.: Morrow Publishing Comapny, 1978.

12. Ekwall, Eldon. Teachers' Handbook on Diagnosis and Remediation in Reading. Boston, Mass.: Allyn and Bacon, 1977.

13. Flesch, Rudolph. Why Johnny Can't Read and What You can do About it. New York, NewYork: Harper and Row, 1955.

14. Gilliland, John. Readability. Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, 1972.

15. Hall, Nancy. Rescue: A Handbook of Remedial Reading. Stevensville, Mich.: Educational Service, 1969.

16. Heilman, Arthur W. Principals and Practices of Teaching Reading. 3rd ed. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1972.

17. Robinson, H. Allan and Ellen Lamar Thomas, eds. Using Reading Skills and Content. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1969.

18. Smith, Henry P. and Emerald V. Dechant. Psychology in Teaching Reading. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961.

19. Strang, Ruth. Diagnostic Teaching of Reading. 9th ed. Champaign, Ill.: Garrand, 1972.

20. Veatch, Jeannette and Philip Acinapuro. Reading in the Elementary School. New York: Ronald Press, 1966.

21. Witty, Paul. How to Become a Better Reader. 1976.